DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 034 746 SP 003 439

AUTHOR	Bebb, Aldon M.; And Others
TITLE	Supervisory Conference as Individualized Teaching. Association for Student Teaching Bulletin, No. 28, 1969.
INSTITUTION	Association for Student Teaching, Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	69
NOTE	34p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Publications-Sales Section, National Education Association, 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 ($1.25, Stock No. 867-24480)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.25 HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	*Clinical Professors, Cooperating Teachers, Individualized Instruction, Laboratory Training, *Practicum Supervision, Preservice Education, Student Teacher Relationship, *Student Teachers, *Supervisory Methods, *Teacher Educator Education

ABSTRACT

This manual, developed for supervising teachers and others involved with the professional growth of students during their professional laboratory experience, explores "the means by which supervising teachers may use supervisory conferences to guide students in studying their own teaching behavior." The underlying thesis is that "the conference requires a particularly skillful kind of individualized teaching which must be learned and practiced. It is a skill that can be developed by any supervisor who is willing to expend the time and effort required." The guidelines and materials which are presented as a means to this end are developed under four major headings: (1) The Importance of the Conference (purposes, objectives, and emphasis); (2) Some Ways of Studying Teaching (principles and patterns of verbal interaction, cognitive activity, nonverbal communication, and learning theory, as defined and analyzed by researchers); (3) Principles of Effective Conferences (careful preparation, human relations skill, and productive results); and (4) Rewards of Productive Conferences. A bibliography is included. (Author/ES)

SUPERVISORY CONFERENCE AS INDIVIDUALIZED TEACHING

ED034746

Aldon M. Bebb
Kansas State College, Pittsburg

Arlene F. Low
Farmington State College
Farmington, Maine

Floyd T. Waterman
University of Nebraska at Omaha

ASSOCIATION for
STUDENT TEACHING BULLETIN, No. 28 1969

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

PROCESS WITH MICROFICHE AND PUBLISHER'S PRICES. MICROFICHE REPRODUCTION ONLY.

SP003439

PROCESS WITH MICROFICHE
AND PUBLISHER'S PRICES.
MICROFICHE REPRODUCTION
ONLY.

Copyright © 1954, 1969

The Association for Student Teaching
A National Affiliate of the National Education Association
Richard E. Collier
Executive Secretary
Library of Congress Catalog Card Number 62-1604

TO PURCHASE: **Single copy, $1.25** (stock no. 867-24480). Discounts on quantity orders: 2-9 copies, 10 percent; 10 or more copies, 20 percent. To bookstores and other agencies for resale purposes, 20 percent. Orders accompanied by payment will be sent postpaid. Shipping and handling charges will be added to billed orders. All orders of $2 or less must be accompanied by payment. Order from Publications-Sales Section, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Permission to reproduce this copyrighted work has been granted to the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and to the organization operating under contract with the Office of Education to reproduce documents included in the ERIC system by means of microfiche only, but this right is not conferred to any users of the microfiche received from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. Further reproduction of any part requires permission of the copyright owner.

ED034746

Foreword

Work on this bulletin began under the leadership of Miss Walter B. Mathews, then chairman of the Bulletins Committee of the Association for Student Teaching. The outline and early drafts of the manuscript were approved by a committee chaired by Elizabeth Hardin and were edited by Alex Perrodin. The acceptance of the manuscript for publication occurred during the time that Calvin Eland was chairman of the Publications Committee. To each of these persons and their associates the authors and the Association expressed gratitude and appreciation for continued encouragement and support.

To the current Publications Committee falls the duty of presenting this bulletin as a most worthy replacement for the former Bulletin No. 3—*Helping The Student Teacher Through Conferences.* It is with pride and a great sense of indebtedness to the authors whose labors are reflected here that *Supervisory Conferences as Individualized Teaching* is now released for publication.

AST Publications Committee
1969

The final production and distribution of this publication were the responsibility of Richard E. Collier, Executive Secretary, AST, and Linda Booth, Administrative Assistant, AST. Editing was handled by Geraldine Pershing, an NEA staff member.

Table of Contents

Chapters		*Page*
	FOREWORD	3
	INTRODUCTION	5
I.	THE IMPORTANCE OF THE CONFERENCE	6
	Purposes and Objectives of Conferences	6
	Conferences that Study the Teaching Act	7
II.	SOME WAYS OF STUDYING TEACHING	9
	Research on Teaching	9
	Patterns of Verbal Interaction	10
	Types of Cognitive Activity	13
	Nonverbal Communication	15
	Learning Principles	19
III.	PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE CONFERENCES	20
	Preparation for Conferences	21
	Importance of Human Relations	25
	Plans for Action	29
IV.	REWARDS OF PRODUCTIVE CONFERENCES	31
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	33

Introduction

This bulletin is directed to supervising teachers and others who are involved with the professional growth of students during that phase of preparation commonly known as professional laboratory experiences. There is little doubt in the minds of those who have worked with student teachers that the conference is a potentially powerful means of guiding professional growth. Skillfully conducted, it is the most immediately useful and available way of giving the student the help he needs. There is, however, a dearth of knowledge on how to confer with student teachers on important dimensions of their teaching. This bulletin was written with that thought in mind.

The major portion of the bulletin deals with means by which supervising teachers may use supervisory conferences to guide students in studying their own teaching behavior. It is generally realized that a major means of self-improvement is the development of a comprehensive conceptual scheme. It is applied in reflecting upon past and ongoing behavior in such a way as to encourage better decisions and actions in the future. We hope this bulletin will make some contributions toward such a development.

A.M.B.
A.F.L.
F.T.W.

Chapter I

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE CONFERENCE

The conference is probably the means most frequently employed in guiding the student teacher. It is a means of communication involving two or more persons in serious conversation or discussion. The conference is communication for the purpose of counseling or advising, for pooling the results of each individual's thinking, and for considering common concerns. In essence, the conference is a teaching-learning situation which provides a highly useful form of individualized instruction. In the process of individualization, a means is provided by which the student is not only pushed toward the limits of his ability but is made to feel personally involved and committed.

PURPOSES AND OBJECTIVES OF CONFERENCES

The conference in student teaching may take place for various reasons. Sometimes it is an effort on the part of the supervisor to share his philosophy of teaching. At other times, the conference with the student teacher may focus on plans for teaching, both long-range and immediate. Still other conferences may be held to talk about the student teacher's professional goals or personal problems as they relate to school settings. Discussions may center upon the characteristics of children in general and the needs of particular pupils or groups within a class.

Another kind of conference is for the purpose of evaluating the progress of an individual student teacher. Evaluation of the growth of a student teacher is a continuous process, one which is an integral part of the day-to-day activities. Strength and limitations of the student teacher may be noted as he talks with his supervisor and makes plans for future teaching activities. Time should also be provided for evaluation of progress. Such summarizing conferences are held from time to time to help the student teacher gain perspective on his own progress and, in light of that progress, to plan future activities.

Some conferences will be needed to assist in personal adjustment. As a supervisor works closely with the student and both grow in mutual understanding, the student may seek counsel and advice on problems of a personal nature. Often it will not be possible for the supervisor to give the kind or amount of help that is needed, but he may be able to help his student find the guidance and counsel required. In this category may also be placed problems of personal adjustment of which the student may not be aware. Personal mannerisms, attitudes toward people, relations with colleagues or pupils, personal values, and personality factors may require

his attention and may need to be identified in conference by the supervisor.

The categories named above are not mutually exclusive. One or more may be included in a single conference. More important than categorization is a clearer understanding of the major purposes or objectives of the conference.

The major objective of any conference with a student teacher is to provide guidance in developing the teaching competencies of the beginning teacher. Stratemeyer and Lindsey suggest that through the conference the student teacher should be helped to:

- See more clearly the relationships between theory and practice.
- Gain a broad vision of the work of the teacher and the role of the school in the community.
- Grow in self-analysis and self-improvement.
- Develop a professional attitude that is a workable guide to action.
- Formulate a more conscious educational point of view.
- Seek increasingly better solutions to problems by raising questions, discussing ways of working, and outlining ways to test ideas experimentally.[1]

CONFERENCES THAT STUDY THE TEACHING ACT

The study of teaching and the careful rethinking of the preparation of teachers are perhaps at their most significant point in history. These areas should remain under critical study for some time since in the past there has been a definite scarcity of careful studies of the teaching process. However, there are enough data on the topic now to start formulating some new patterns for preparing a more analytic and critical person to assume the position of classroom teacher.

A fundamental premise of education is that behavior can be changed and improved. The improvement of teaching behavior requires some means of helping the prospective teacher to identify behaviors that will, in turn, produce effective learning experiences for students in the classroom. Supervisory conferences can provide this opportunity, but the procedure too frequently employed by the supervisor is to observe the teaching of the student teacher, take careful notes, and then discuss his performance with him in a conference situation. Many weaknesses of this entrenched procedure are apparent.

---

[1] Stratemeyer, Florence, and Lindsey, Margaret. *Working with Student Teachers.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958. p. 401.

Supervisors must focus their attention and activities on the central matters of teaching. Recent research indentifies and provides much more accurate and detailed knowledge about these central behaviors, such as questioning, controlling, responding, structuring, and so forth. Too often supervisors have given most attention to peripheral matters such as appearance, mannerisms, gestures, and the like, to the exclusion of more important matters of teaching and learning. The result is that the classroom practitioner tends to operate at a relatively low level of professonal sophistication.

McGeoch and Lindsey, among others, point to the need to add new dimensions to the supervisory conference:

> The individualized teaching which takes place in the supervisory conference tends to rely upon giving general, rather than specific, help and upon the subjective, rather than the objective, analysis of performance by student teachers. Emphasis tends to be upon emotional climate in the classroom, on rapport between pupils and student teachers, and on personality factors. Desirable as these emphases are, they have often been disproportionate in relation to other dimensions of the teaching-learning situation.[2]

This bulletin is an attempt to provide general guidance in improving the supervisory conference as an individualized teaching situation. By analyzing, studying, and practicing behavior through the conscious selection and examination of various aspects of interaction between teacher and students during a variety of teaching activities, a student teacher can be helped to acquire teaching skill. Through the conference where the focus is on the study of the teaching act, student teaching becomes the laboratory in which new teaching behaviors can be discovered, practiced, and experimented with.

To promote this end, certain conditions must be present: (a) a desire for change on the part of the student teacher, (b) a climate of support for the student teacher, and (c) a group of concepts which objectively describe and record what occurs in the classroom and which can be used by the student teacher and supervisor for feedback.

In providing specific helps, the authors hope to encourage continual searching and professional growth on the part of those associated with the education of teachers.

---

[2] McGeoch, Dorothy M., and Lindsey, Margaret. "Supervisory Conferences and the Analysis of Teaching." *The Study of Teaching.* (Edited by Dean Corrigan.) Washington, D.C.. Association for Student Teaching, 1967. p. 64.

Chapter II

SOME WAYS OF STUDYING TEACHING

The teaching of the student teacher occurs primarily in the individualized teaching situation of the conference. It is during the conference between the student teacher and his supervisor that there is an opportunity to talk about the central concern of the student of teaching—the nature of teaching itself!

It is relatively simple to state the major concern of the student teaching conference. It is terribly difficult, however, to act effectively in such a situation. The classroom teaching environment is almost unimaginably complex and consequently difficult to analyze. Educational researchers have been trying for many years to define the elements of good teaching and essentially have come to the conclusion that it is something which is done by a good teacher. While such a finding may be quite logical, it aids little in helping the teacher-to-be to improve his performance in the classroom.

Traditionally, supervisors observe a relatively brief sample of teaching activity, take notes on what they see, and in the conference talk with the student teacher about what they observed. Language which indicates the supervisor's judgment is frequently used. The neophyte teacher may leave the conference with the assurance that the teaching was "successful," "effective," or "a good lesson." It is much less likely, however, that he is fully aware of the basis for such value statements or what kind of activities on his part might result in continued favorable judgments. It is even less often that the conference results in a clear understanding of the relation of the assessment to values and goals held by the supervisor or the teacher himself.

RESEARCH ON TEACHING

The extensive studies of teaching which have been occupying the attention of the researchers during the last ten years will not answer the questions of value. They will not, in themselves, give any teacher or supervisor direct information as to whether teaching is "successful," "effective," or "good." They do have one clear value, however. The discriminating use of concepts from the various studies of teaching can help the student of teaching and his supervisor to describe more clearly what happens in the classroom. The various systems of analysis provide a language for communicating about some of the dimensions of teaching and the changes in teaching performance that occur over time.

Armed with a language for talking about teaching in some of its aspects, and with some skill in applying such categories in a teaching sit-

uation, the supervisor and the beginner are ready to set purposes in terms of defined values or goals and to gather evidence related to the accomplishment of such goals. With this evidence it is then possible to project alternate ways of acting which may result in a nearer approach to the desired teaching situation and a more effective implementation of explicit values. In other words, if the desired outcome is clear, the categories of some of the systems of analysis will provide help in describing and assessing the extent to which it is achieved.

In the sections which follow, examples of concepts from studies of teaching which may be useful to the supervisor and the beginning teacher are discussed. These illustrations represent only an introduction to some ways of analyzing teaching. Supervisors and students may add to their repertoire of useful concepts in two ways. They may study and adapt additional categories from published materials such as those listed in the bibliography of this bulletin. They may also, and most profitably, develop categories of analysis which are particularly adapted to their own teaching situations and which provide an effective basis for communication about dimensions of teaching which they consider important.

PATTERNS OF VERBAL INTERACTION

Much of the recent research on teaching has emphasized the verbal aspects of classroom interaction. While nonverbal behavior is no less important, it is much harder to study. Consequently, the major contribution of the studies to the individualized teaching of the conference lies in their ability to define aspects of verbal interaction in the classroom.

The language of the classroom has been studied extensively by Bellack and his associates. They developed the point of view that learning to participate in various types of language activities is very much like learning to play a game:

> Teaching is similar to most games in at least two respects. First, it is a form of social activity in which the players—teachers and pupils—fill different but complementary roles. Furthermore, teaching is governed by ground rules of play which guide the actions or moves made by participants.[1]

Bellack's studies suggested that all classroom talk, whether teacher or pupil, may be classified in four major categories, defining the traditional unit of discourse as a *solicitation* (question) by the teacher, a *response* by the pupil, and a *reaction* by the teacher. Such teaching cycles are typically

---

[1] Bellack, Arno, and Davitz, Joel R., et al. "The Language of the Classroom." *Teaching: Vantage Points for Study.* (Edited by Ronald T. Hyman.) Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1968. p. 86.

interspersed with *structuring* moves by the teacher, "setting the context for subsequent behavior by launching or halting"[2] particular kinds of action and by indicating the nature of the approved activity for a period. Lecturing, or focusing attention on a particular topic or problem, may also be classified as structuring.

A sample of classroom talk, categorized by pedagogical moves, might look like this:

(Str)	**Teacher:**	Let's see how many of us remember our capitals.
(Sol)		What is the capital of France?
(Res)	**Pupil:**	Paris.
(Rea)	**Teacher:**	Good.
(Sol)		What is the capital of Italy?
(Res)	**Pupil:**	Venice
(Res)	**Teacher:**	Wrong.
(Sol)		Who knows?

Generally, in the student teaching classroom, this system of classifying pedagogical moves would be used with a tape recording of the teaching session or by an observer who would record the appropriate coded symbols for each move. The tape recording has a distinct advantage, of course, in that it provides an opportunity for the supervisor and the student teacher to review the record of classroom interaction while making an analysis of the moves used.

The basic teaching cycle of solicitation-response-reaction can be useful but is by no means the only way of conducting a class. Other patterns are desirable and productive. What happens when pupils do some of the soliciting, when the teacher or other pupils respond, when pupils react to each others' comments, and maybe even when the teacher, for a significant period of time, is unable to get a word in edgewise? When the objectives of the school encompass such goals as evaluative teaching, divergent rather than convergent responses, and the development of the techniques of inquiry, it becomes important to know and not too difficult to record the kinds of classroom utterances made by pupils and teachers.

Another widely used means of studying the verbal patterns of the teacher in the classroom was developed by Flanders,[3] who defined two broad classifications of teacher influence, direct and indirect, as follows:

> DIRECT INFLUENCE consists of stating the teacher's own opinions or ideas, directing the pupil's action, criticizing his behavior, or justifying the teacher's authority or use of that authority.

---

[2] *Ibid*, pp. 86-87.

[3] Flanders, Ned A. "Teacher Influence in the Classroom." *Theory and Research in Teaching*. (Edited by Arno A. Bellack.) New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963. p. 44.

INDIRECT INFLUENCE consists of soliciting the opinions or ideas of the pupils, applying or enlarging on the opinions or ideas of the pupils, praising or encouraging the participation of pupils, or clarifying and accepting the feeling of pupils.

Flanders' system of analysis consists of seven teacher-talk categories. Four of these are classified as indirect influence: **(1)** accepts feeling, **(2)** praises or encourages, **(3)** accepts or uses ideas of student, **(4)** asks questions. Direct influence is also exerted by the teacher: **(5)** lectures, **(6)** gives direction, **(7)** criticizes or justifies authority. Student talk is divided in terms of whether it is a direct response to the teacher or self-initiated: **(8)** student talk-response, **(9)** student talk-initiation. A final category includes all noncodable periods: **(10)** silence or confusion.

Modifications of the Flanders' categories have been made by a number of researchers, including Amidon and Hunter, who developed the VICS (Verbal Interaction Category System) which is used as a tool to help teachers improve their teaching.[4] When either the VICS or Flanders' system is used, the observer records a code number indicating the appropriate category every three seconds. The code numbers, which may be recorded in the form of a matrix, become the data record for the supervisory conference. Student teachers may examine their goals with their supervisor, then determine the gaps between their intent and their actual teaching behavior. If, for example, the student teacher had intended to generate student-initiated talk (Category 9) and the observer's recordings show that he has generated only response to the teacher (Category 8), then he may look at his own behavior to attempt to find relationships. If most of the student teacher's behavior falls in either the lecturing (5) or the questioning (4) category, the discussion of the conference participants might center on ways of achieving more student-initiated talk. This might well require more acceptance and use of the ideas of the student and more encouragement or praise (Categories 3 and 2).

Materials for the use of teachers and students in learning to use the Flanders' and the VICS systems are widely available. A series of filmstrips with accompanying manual are most useful.[5] The Amidon and Hunter book includes skill sessions for the use of students attempting to improve their teaching behavior. The skill sessions are of general value even when the particular category system is not used in its entirety.[6]

---

[4] Amidon, Edmund, and Hunter, Elizabeth. *Improving Teaching: The Analysis of Classroom Verbal Interaction*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1966.

[5] Flanders, Ned A. Four filmstrips and tape-recorded sound tracks. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

[6] Amidon and Hunter, *op. cit.*

TYPES OF COGNITIVE ACTIVITY

The analyses of classroom interaction describe the pedagogical functions of the classroom discourse but say nothing concerning its cognitive content. Other types of categories have been developed to make possible some discussion of the level of thinking which is being elicited by the teacher.

A classification system which may be applied to teachers' questions has been developed by Gallagher and Aschner through the use of the operations of the intellect as described by Guilford. They describe four types of cognitive activity as follows:

> Cognitive-memory operations represent the simple reproduction of facts, formulae, or other items of remembered content through use of such processes as recognition, rote memory and selective recall. . . .
>
> T. Will you tell us what is the first question on the guidesheet?

> Convergent thinking represents the analysis and integration of given or remembered data. It leads to one expected end-result or answer because of the tightly structured framework through which the individual must respond. . . .
>
> T. If I had six apples and gave John two, how many apples would I have left?

> Divergent thinking represents intellectual operations wherein the individual is free to generate independently his own data within a data-poor situation, or to take a new direction or perspective on a given topic. . . .
>
> T. Suppose Spain had not been defeated when the Armada was destroyed in 1588 but that, instead, Spain had conquered England. What would the world be like today if that (had) happened?

> Evaluative thinking deals with matters of judgment, value and choice, and is characterized by its judgmental quality. . . .
>
> T. What do you think of Captain Ahab as a heroic figure in Moby Dick?[7]

Another set of categories for classifying inferred cognitive processes elicited from teacher discourse, was developed by Brown, Cobban, and Waterman for use with student teachers. Their formulation is based on Bloom's taxonomy and is adapted to make it readily available for the use of the beginning teacher. The categories are as follows:

---

[7]Gallagher, James J., and Aschner, Mary Jane. "A Preliminary Report on Analyses of Classroom Interaction." *Teaching: Vantage Points for Study, op. cit.*, pp. 121-123.

1. PERCEIVING, RECALLING, RECOGNIZING. The speaker selects certain stimuli from his environment through the use of his senses and brings them to the conscious level by verbal description. He calls back to memory by recollecting observations from previous experience. He is aware that the conditions observed are the same as those previously known.

2. DISCRIMINATING, COMPARING, DEFINING. The speaker selects distinguishing features from the more general features of ideas or phenomena; he examines for similarities; he names, describes, or states his perception of the general and specific features of ideas or phenomena.

3. CLASSIFYING, RELATING, GENERALIZING. The speaker puts together groups of ideas, events, and situations that have characteristics in common. He shows the connection between one situation and another and views the situation as a whole by combining ideas, events, and elements into a unified statement.

4. OPINIONING, JUDGING, EVALUATING. The speaker holds a conclusion with confidence, but it is not always based upon extensive evidence. He deliberates and asserts his decision on the basis of some criteria; he appraises carefully and makes quantitative decisions using criteria.

5. INFERRING, INTERPRETING, APPLYING. The speaker surmises probable consequences through reasoning. He translates previous experience or ideas into new forms, and he employs for a particular purpose a previous idea, or he makes a connection by bringing to bear previous experience.

6. FACILITATING TALK. This category and the next category are clearly not part of the cognitive processes. This category is used to classify talk which is intended to facilitate interaction in the classroom. It includes mere repetition which is given so others may hear. It also includes the simple supportive statement ("Umm," "OK," "Yes," "Fine," or "Good") when it is clear that no judgment is being made. Most of the routines or management talk such as, "Please close the door," fall under this category.

7. NONCODABLE. This category is necessitated by inaudible statements or comments which are incomplete or so garbled that their meaning cannot be inferred.[8]

In using any system for the analysis of questioning behavior students need to be assured that the effectiveness of any question is clearly

---

[8] Brown, Anna Beth; Cobban, Margaret; and Waterman, Floyd, "The Analysis of Verbal Teaching Behavior: An Approach to Supervisory Conferences with Student Teachers." Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation. New York: Teachers College. Columbia University, 1965. pp. 36-37.

related to the purpose for which it is used. There are many situations in which cognitive-memory or recall responses are appropriate and desirable. Indeed, it is often necessary to build a background of information from which the student is stimulated to make inferences or to develop appropriate generalizations. In each case, it is the purpose of the interaction and the background and experience of the students which determine the careful sequencing of questioning behavior and development of the desired cognitive activity. The conference provides an opportunity for discussing the results of previous questioning and for planning future sequences based on the insights gained.

NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

All teachers are well aware that verbal communication does not constitute the total message conveyed by a teacher to the pupils in his classroom. In fact, it is often true that the facial expressions, physical movements, and voice quality of the teacher may be so influential that the pupil has great difficulty in attending to the verbal statements which are made. It is a clear demonstration of the old saying, "What you are speaks so loudly that I can't hear what you say."

If a student teacher is uninterested in the pupils in his charge, if he is uncomfortable in the classroom, or if his voice is unpleasant or inaudible, there may be a limit to the changes which can be made during the student teaching assignment. It may be, in fact, that these behaviors are indications of a need to redirect the student into another field for which he is better suited. More often, however, an objective examination of the behavior as it occurs in the classroom through the use of descriptive categories may be very effective in promoting more appropriate and effective behavior.

Voice quality can usually be adequately studied through an audio recording of a series of teaching sessions. Movement and facial expression are more easily analyzed by a video recording or by a series of still pictures taken at regular intervals in the classroom. As portable videotaping equipment becomes more generally available it will be increasingly possible to present to the student a comprehensive picture of his teaching behavior at intervals throughout the period of preparation. The videotape will be of little use, however, unless the student and supervisor are prepared to select significant aspects of the complex situation portrayed and to analyze the data relating to these aspects in some orderly way.

Charles Galloway has attempted to develop such a scheme for analysis of nonverbal behavior. He uses seven categories to classify a communicative act which is related to the category system. The categories may be recorded by number while the teaching behavior is being observed, or they may be used as a basis for discussion in the conference situation while a visual representation of the teaching is being observed.

As developed by Galloway, the seven categories are:

ENCOURAGING COMMUNICATION

1. ENTHUSIASTIC SUPPORT. A nonverbal expression implying enthusiastic support of a pupil's behavior, pupil interaction, or both. An expression that manifests enthusiastic approval, unusual warmth, or emotional support; being strongly pleased. An expression that exhibits strong encouragement to pupil. Examples of nonverbal determinants are as follows:

    1. FACIAL EXPRESSION. Any expression that implies support or approval of some behavior or interaction occurring in the classroom. Any facial expression that connotes enjoyment, pleasure, or satisfaction with the pupil, or the topic.

    2. ACTION. Any movement or action that portrays enthusiastic approval and active acceptance in an approving way, e.g., a pat on the back, or a warm greeting of praise. An act that endorses approval of the pupil, and gives strong encouragement.

    3. VOCAL LANGUAGE. Any voice quality indicating pleasure or warm acceptance. The use of the voice through intonation or inflection suggests approval and support.

2. HELPING. A responsive act that relates to modifications in the teacher's behavior which suggest a detection of expressed feelings, needs, urgencies, problems, etc., in the pupil. A communicative act that performs a function which helps a pupil or answers a need. An act that meets a pupil's request; a nurturant act. This act is the spontaneous reaction that the teacher manifests in the form of an actual response. It may be either intellectually supporting or problem-centered. Examples of nonverbal determinants:

    1. FACIAL EXPRESSION. An expression that implies, "I understand," or "I know what you mean," which is followed up by some kind of appropriate action. An expression that is consistent and sensitive to the pupil's needs. A facial expression that registers an acceptance and an understanding of a pupil's problem.

    2. ACTION. A movement or action that is intended to help or perform a function for the pupil. The action of the teacher is consistent with the need expressed by the pupil. Any action that suggests understanding and assistance.

    3. VOCAL LANGUAGE. A vocal utterance that is acceptant and understanding. The voice may be tender, compassionate, or supportive; or it may be a laugh or a vocalization that breaks the tension.

3. RECEPTIVITY. A nonverbal expression that implies a willingness to listen with patience and interest to pupil talk. By paying attention to the pupil, the teacher exhibits an interest in the pupil, and implicitly manifests approval, satisfaction, or encouragement. Such a nonverbal expression implies to the pupil that "lines of communication are open."

   1. FACIAL EXPRESSION. Maintains eye contact with pupil in a systematic fashion, exhibiting interest in pupil, pupil's talk, or both. Facial expression indicates patience and attention. Other expressions suggest a readiness to listen, or an attempt at trying to understand.

   2. ACTION. The teacher's demeanor suggests attentiveness by the way the total body is presented and movements used. An expressional pose or stance that suggests alertness, readiness, or willingness to have pupils talk. Teacher may be paying attention to pupil talk, even though eye contact is not established. A moving gesture that indicates the pupil is on the "right track." A gesture that openly or subtly encourages the pupil to continue.

   3. VOCAL LANGUAGE: A vocal utterance or vocalization that augments pupil talk, or that encourages the pupil to continue. An utterance indicating "yes-yes" (um-hm), "go on," "okay," "all right," or "I'm listening." Although in a sense, the utterance can be characterized as an interruption, it in no way interferes with the communication process; indeed, such a vocalization supplements, and encourages the pupil to continue.

4. PRO FORMA. A communicative act that is a matter of form, or for the sake of form. Thus, the nature of the act, whether it is a facial expression, action, or vocal language, conveys little or no encouraging or inhibiting communicative significance in the contextual situation; a routine act. When the pupil is involved in a consummatory act, or when it is appropriate or unnecessary for the teacher to listen or respond, pro forma applies.

INHIBITING COMMUNICATION

5. INATTENTIVE. A nonverbal expression that implies an unwillingness or inability to engage attentively in the communicative process, thus, indicating disinterest or impatience with pupil talk. By being inattentive or disinterested the teacher inhibits the flow of communication from pupils.

1. FACIAL EXPRESSION. Avoids eye contact to the point of not maintaining attention; exhibits apparent disinterest, or impatience with pupil by showing an unwillingness to listen.

2. ACTION. An expressional pose of movement that indicates disinterest, boredom, or inattention. A demeanor suggesting slouchy or unalert posture. Body posture indicates "don't care attitude," or an ignoring of pupil talk. Postural stance indicates internal tension, preoccupation with something else, or apparently engrossed in own thought. Either a moving or completed hand gesture that suggests the teacher is blocking pupil talk, or terminating the discussion.

3. VOCAL LANGUAGE. A vocal utterance that indicates impatience, or "I want you to stop talking."

6. UNRESPONSIVE. A communicative act that openly ignores a pupil's need, or that is insensitive to pupil's feeling; a tangential response. Display of egocentric behavior or a domination of communication situation by interrupting or interfering in an active fashion with the ongoing process of communicating between pupils, or from pupil to teacher. An annoying, or abusive act; or a failure to respond when a response would ordinarily be expected by ignoring the question or request.

1. FACIAL EXPRESSION. An expression that is troubled, unsure, or unenthused about the topic in question. An expression that threatens or cajoles pupils; a condescending expression; an unsympathetic expression; or an impatient expression. An obvious expression of denial of feeling of pupil, or uncompliance of a request.

2. ACTION. Any action that is unresponsive to or withdrawing from a request or expressed need on the part of the pupil. An action that manifests disaffection or unacceptance of feeling. A gesture that suggests tension or nervousness.

3. VOCAL LANGUAGE. A vocalization that interfers with or interrupts ongoing process of communication between pupils, or from pupil to teacher. Such a vocalization, when it is an obvious interruption, appears unresponsive to the flow of communication and to the pupils.

7. DISAPPROVAL. An expression implying strong disapproval of a pupil's behavior or pupil interaction. An expression that indicates strong negative overtones, disparagement, or strong dissatisfaction.

1. FACIAL EXPRESSION. The expression may be one of frowning, scowling, threatening glances. Derisive, sarcastic, or disdainful expression may occur. An expression that conveys displeasure, laughing at another, or that is scolding. An expression that "sneers at" or condemns.
2. ACTION. Any action that indicates physical attack or aggressiveness, e.g., a blow, slap, or pinch. Any act that censures or reprimands a pupil. A pointed finger that pokes fun, belittles, or threatens pupils.
3. VOCAL LANGUAGE. Any vocal tone that is hostile, cross, irritated, or antagonistic to the pupil. The vocalization is one of disappointment, depreciation, or discouragement. An utterance suggesting unacceptance.[9]

LEARNING PRINCIPLES

At some stage in the student teacher's development, a more wholistic approach to his teaching behavior may seem desirable. A set of learning principles were used by Canfield, Low, and Mullin to help student teachers focus on their verbal behavior. These researchers identified basic learning principles and developed a workable list with student teachers, who then identified instances of use or lack of use of the principles from recordings of their own teaching behavior.

The stated principles are as follows:

1. Learning is facilitated when the learner responds actively in the learning situation.
2. A learner's chances of learning are increased when his purposes and those of the teacher are sufficiently similar for him to perceive the relationship.
3. A learner's chances of learning are increased when the material to be learned is meaningful to him.
4. A learner's chances of learning are increased when he can see some possibility of succeeding in the learning task he is attempting.
5. A learner's chances of learning are increased each time he experiences success in a learning task.

---

[9]Galloway, Charles M. "Nonverbal Communication in Teaching." *Teaching: Vantage Points for Study, op. cit.*, pp. 74-77.

6. A learner's chances of learning are increased when he has opportunities for and assistance in the discovery of facts, relationships, and generalizations.
7. Possibility of retention of learned material is increased when the learner practices his learnings immediately, frequently, and in varied situations.[10]

In supervisory conferences in which principles of learning are used as one means of analyzing teaching, the student teacher and the supervisor may discuss evidence of the use of a selected principle in the teaching session or ways to utilize a principle. The selection of a single principle which is especially appropriate for a teaching situation and the focus on that principle through a series of teaching sessions and subsequent conferences can be a valuable way to gather data and outline changed behavior which would not be as clearly delineated by other categories of analysis.

The conceptual schemes identified here are but a small sample of the recently developed ways of studying teaching. Additional systems and bases for analysis will be found in recent publications on teacher education and educational research. A selection of such publications is included in the bibliography of this bulletin.

Selected concepts and categories from the various systems of analysis can be useful in providing a focus and a language for gathering and interpreting data concerning the teaching performance of student teachers. They may be used in the individualized teaching situation of the conference to identify the behavioral components of the desired outcomes selected for emphasis by the student teacher and the supervisor and to provide a means of assessing the presence of such components in a selected sample of teaching behavior. They provide a repertoire of conceptual tools which, if used with discrimination, can make the supervisory conference an effective means of teaching and learning.

Chapter III

PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE CONFERENCES

Conferences have been recognized as useful means of helping student teachers. Skillfully conducted, a conference helps the student teacher identify gaps between his purpose and his performance. It enables

---

[10] Canfield, James K.; Low, Arlene F.; and Mullin, Robert. "A Principles of Learning Approach to Analysis of Student Teachers' Verbal Teaching Behavior." Unpublished Ed. D. dissertation. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1965. p. 41.

him to decide on potentially better ways of performing the teacher's role and leaves him not only with a realistic view of his own strengths and shortcomings but with definite plans for change and with confidence in his own potential as a teacher.

Not all supervisory conferences achieve these results. A poorly conducted conference may leave the student teacher bewildered, resentful, with self-confidence impaired, and still without definite plans for change. Fearful of contributing to such negative learnings, a supervisor may avoid situations requiring direct analysis or advice, thus depriving both himself and the student teacher of a valuable learning experience. He may not know how to use modern techniques of analysis of the teaching act. Thus, the supervisor may depend on hints and casual suggestions to guide the student teacher. Small wonder that under these circumstances both find themselves frustrated: the supervisor because the student teacher does not accept suggestions and the student teacher because he feels he is not receiving the help he needs. Such a situation is a sad one; it need not occur.

The first and most necessary aspect of skilled conferring occurs as the supervisor and the student teacher first become acquainted. Mutual trust and respect are essential if conferences or any other kind of guidance are to be successful. After these have been established, knowing and utilizing certain basic principles will enable both conferees (student teacher and supervising teacher or student teacher and college supervisor) to gain skill and to make conferences pleasant and productive rather than trying experiences.

This chapter will discuss three principles considered essential to the success of conferences:

1. Thoughtful preparation makes conferences productive.
2. Good human relations are essential to good conferences.
3. Effective conferences end with definite plans for action.

PREPARATION FOR CONFERENCES

An important factor in the value of any supervisory conference is the extent to which the participants are prepared to discuss relevant matters within an agreed-upon framework. While preparation for the conference is the mutual responsibility of both participants, the major responsibility rests with the supervisor (either a college supervisor or a supervising teacher). Because this is a live teaching situation in which both the ideas and the emotions of each participant are involved, preparation cannot be complete, nor is the conference likely to proceed in just the way it was planned. Still, preparation must be made and is of great value.

Gathering of Data

The first step in preparation for a conference is the collection of evidence concerning the topic to be discussed. A record of the selected lesson or teaching behavior is necessary. This record may be a supervisor's notes concerning the lesson with a carbon copy for the student teacher, a photographic sequence, an audio or videotape recording, or a combination of these. As was shown in the previous chapter, it is possible to make suitable and clearly focused records without the use of extensive technological equipment. However, the importance of a factual, objective record developed within specifically defined limits cannot be overstressed.

A conference structured to help the student teacher plan more effectively in terms of the individual needs of children may require both participants to study and evaluate a lesson plan or a lesson taught by the student teacher or supervising teacher. It may require the supervisor to list sources of useful material and to suggest that the student teacher read a particular article or section of a curriculum guide as part of his preparation.

An audiotape recording of a sample of teaching behavior may be made as a basis for many types of analysis. The supervisor and the student teacher may have developed a statement of principles of learning as their own guide for analyzing teaching. The recording would help them focus on the conscious application of a selected principle during a lesson or a series of lessons. A recording might also be used to graph pedagogical moves, to categorize types of questions asked, or to examine classroom discourse in terms of direct and indirect influence.

A conference structured to evaluate the student teacher's overall experience will require the collection of several kinds of objective evidence, thoughtful consideration of both the evidence and the evaluation instrument, and decisions as to the implications of the evidence.

Studying the Data

The collected data, including records of teaching behavior, must then be studied, analyzed, or examined by both the student teacher and the supervisor. This may necessitate preparation of typescripts, diagrams, or summaries of the lesson for both conferees. The discussion charts or interaction matrices may in some instances be provided for the student teacher. The audio or videotape of teaching should be heard or viewed by both conference participants. This may necessitate seeing that the student teacher has access to the required playback equipment.

Developing the Conference Agenda

Both participants come to the conference with adequate notes, questions, or possible agenda items. The questions or comments are usually

related to the focus of the analysis previously agreed upon, though again, matters of concern to the student teacher must not be neglected. Since both participants understand the scheme which is used for the analysis of teaching, the conference agenda will have many common elements. For example, if the student teacher's goal had been stated as, "To begin the lesson with an effective set," the first few minutes of a video playback would demonstrate whether he had achieved his objective. When audio or video recordings are used in the conference, the participants may plan jointly to view a particular section as a basis for discussion.

In general, the supervising teacher examines the available evidence thoughtfully. He looks for strengths of the student teacher as well as weaknesses and decides on one or two ideas he thinks must be considered. He provides himself with the necessary books, curriculum guides, or cumulative records. Finally, he tries to look at both the evidence and his own plans as objectively as he can, from the student teacher's point of view.

The student teacher also studies the record and prepares questions or lists of topics that he wishes to have discussed. He, too, comes to the conference prepared with helpful materials such as lesson plans, notes concerning a child's behavior, and so on.

Recording Conference Plans

A simple form for conference plans can be duplicated. Used by both participants, it provides a convenient way of recording both topics or questions for conference discussion and plans for improvement. Following are two such plans for the same conference. The first was made by the supervisor and shows both the topics he wishes discussed and the plans for the next lesson to be developed with the student teacher. The second plan was made by the student teacher.

Conference Plan Form

Name: G. Tubbson **Date:** 10/18 **Topic:** Math Lesson

Points for Discussion	Next Steps
Comment on improvement in control—very noticeable.	Reteach, using counters.
Board work neat—manuscript shows improvement.	Give Tommy a little more favorable attention. He needs it.
How make lesson more interesting? Suggest use of counters by all in group.	Watch out for OK.

What was G's specific purpose? (Not clear to me. Was it to children?)	Remember motivation.
What does she see as cause of their confusion? (They were!)	
Better reteach this. Wrong to leave confusion.	

Conference Plan Form

Name: GRACIA TUBBSON **Date:** 10/18 **Topic:** MATH LESSON

POINTS FOR DISCUSSION	NEXT STEPS
Why don't they pay attention?	Do this lesson over. Use the dowels, and be sure they understand.
Why does Tommy act out so much? How can I make him behave?	Praise Tommy more, and try to ignore his foolishness. He's just asking for attention.
Why does my supervisor insist I have to teach Math?	Vary words of praise. Don't say OK so much.
Did I say OK as often this time?	Remember children have to want to learn.

It will be noted that the supervisor and the student teacher expressed similar concerns. This happens frequently. If it does not, the supervisor should be careful to meet the student teacher's concerns, even at the expense of some of his own, since the student teacher can use only the help he is ready to receive. It is unwise for the supervisor to plan so thoroughly the topics to be discussed as to risk dominating the conference. It is better to postpone consideration of some ideas than to force discussion of them, thus perhaps ignoring a concern more important to the student teacher at that particular time.

College supervisors and supervising teachers have an additional and rather obvious responsibility in making preparation for conferences. Attention to the physical requirements of office space or a private area

for conferring is necessary. If such equipment as a tape recorder, projector, or typescript is necessary, then arrange for it. Scheduling conference time convenient for both participants is also the responsibility of the supervising teacher or college supervisor.

IMPORTANCE OF HUMAN RELATIONS

Nothing is more important in the successful conference than its human relations aspects. The student teacher's awareness of genuine concern and respect on the part of those who supervise him helps him change or improve his behavior. Fear is unlikely to bring about internalized or permanent change. Fear of a "bad grade" if he does not concur with supervisory suggestions is unlikely to improve his teaching. Improved teaching is more likely to occur when the student teacher senses genuine concern on the part of those trying to help him, when he is truly respected as an individual, and when his ideas and concerns are of importance to those working with him.

Learning to Listen

As a first step in establishing good human relations, college supervisors and supervising teachers must learn to listen. Listening is an active, sincere process which must be cultivated. Often people of experience are so busy formulating responses that they fail really to hear what the student teacher is saying. The successful conference can result only when both participants have cultivated the skill of listening.

The experienced teacher (supervising teacher or college supervisor) should assume the leadership in cultivating good listening habits. It may be necessary to check with the student teacher and say, "Perhaps I should restate what I heard," or "Let's say this again to be sure we are saying the same thing." There are other aspects of developing listening skills which might be considered, but it will suffice to say here that effective listening is the first step in effective human relations.

Meeting Student's Needs

The second step is to try to meet the needs expressed by the student teacher. These needs may be expressed either in words or in behavior. They may seem naive or be attached to matters of little importance. They may be expressed offhandedly, or even denied, as in the following comment made by a student teacher: "I don't think these children like me, but that's OK. I'm not trying to win any popularity contests." Naive or unimportant as his concerns may seem, they are important to him at that moment and they indicate the ways that help can be given.

In early conferences the student teacher may not, probably will not, be ready to analyze the situation objectively, nor will he be ready to accept the objective analysis of another. He may need and seek evaluative comments or reassurance. He may need to have his own evaluation confirmed.

Evaluation at this stage need not always be praise. If praise can be given honestly, it is wise to give it. If the student teacher says, "That was sure rotten, wasn't it?" and the observer concurs, it may be wiser for him to say, "Well, that wasn't your best effort. Now let's see what we can do about it," than to search for some good point to commend.

Honest encouragement is of value. Honest praise helps. Constructive assistance in finding ways to improve is another kind of support no less helpful.

It may be, as was shown earlier, that the supervisor's concerns and those of the student teacher will nearly coincide. When this is true, both may be dealt with at once. When it is not true, those expressed by the student teacher should receive priority.

There are several ways of encouraging student teachers to share their concerns. One of the best of these is reference to the conference plan. The question, "What questions did you have?" or "How did you feel about the lesson?" will often elicit items of concern, which will lead to the expression of further concerns. The following excerpts from the conference based on the conference plan presented earlier illustrate this:

Supervisor: Well, that's the schedule for next week, and you have the manuals, haven't you? Suppose we think now about today's math lesson. You have your lesson plan? Good! Have you had time to plan our talk about this? What aspect of it would you like us to think about first?

Student Teacher: It wasn't very good, was it?

Supervisor: Well, it wasn't all that bad either. Why do you think it wasn't good?

Student Teacher: They didn't pay attention, and they didn't behave, and Tommy showed off all the time and tried to make the others laugh.

Supervisor: That's true. Have you figured out why?

Student Teacher: Maybe it's because I don't like math. I never could do it, and I never could understand it, and I certainly never wanted to teach it. There's another thing. Why does Miss Smith say we have to teach everything, whether we like it or not?

Supervisor: It's probably true that your own feeling about math influences the way you teach it, but we don't want the children to suffer because you did. Let's see what we can do to make it better.

In the example cited, the concerns expressed by the student teacher paralleled those felt by the supervisor, and the way was opened for a productive discussion of careful preparation, specific planning, and motivation.

Recognizing Student's Feelings

A third important aspect of human relations is to remember or to try to understand how the student teacher feels in the student teaching situation. Skilled teachers often have forgotten the complexity of the teaching task. They may have forgotten the uncertainties, even the fears, that plagued them in that situation. The student teacher may be seeing the experience as a test, a particularly long, significant, trying examination of competencies he is not sure he possesses. At best, he is insecure and ill at ease in the new role. At worst, he is actually frightened. While people respond differently to fear, the response is seldom the same behavior they use when they are secure.

It is important to keep in mind that the student teacher is almost certainly doing the best he can at the time. Few student teachers are indifferent to what they are doing or lacking in desire to do well, though at times one may create that impression. Awkward or inadequate as his behavior may appear, it is almost certainly the best of which he is presently capable.

Maintaining Objectivity

Finally, it is wise to maintain objectivity during discussions with the student teacher. Emphasis placed on the record, on what actually was said and done, rather than on opinions makes it easier for the student teacher to see his own problems and to discover solutions for them. "You want to try to ask better questions," is less helpful than, "Let's look at the questions you used in this lesson." The student teacher may resent the comment, "You say 'OK' too much," but his own discovery, "I said 'OK' fifteen times in that lesson," is likely to bring about change.

Some excerpts of protocol from the conference already introduced may be helpful here:

Supervisor: . . . and you were concerned about Tommy. He was showing off, wasn't he? I made some notes about that. When was he the worst, do you think?

Student Teacher: He was bad all the time, but he was worst when Alan and Jim were working at the board. I had to watch what they were doing and he made faces behind my back to make the others laugh.

Supervisor: Umm. I saw that. Why do you think he did it then?

Student Teacher: Just to bother me? No. I guess he just wanted to be the one to work at the board. He's always throwing his hand at you when you call for volunteers.

Supervisor: Yes, he does. Did he volunteer that time?

Student Teacher: I don't know . . . yes, I guess he did. I know he did, but he'd been showing off and I didn't call on him.

Supervisor: Sometimes that's wise. Let's see, I think you said . . .

Student Teacher. I said, "No, Tommy, keep still." I know I did, because I said it a dozen times this afternoon.

Supervisor: Tommy was bidding for attention, and . . .

Student Teacher: I gave it to him, didn't I? The wrong kind!

Supervisor: Well, he wanted attention . . . I'm not sure of that "dozen times this afternoon," though. Perhaps more than once. I wrote, "No, Tommy," or "shook head at Tommy" three or four times, but that's all. You could manage Tommy more easily in a positive fashion, though. He's trying for attention—by the way, he needs it. He has two older brothers and a little sister and both parents work.

Student Teacher: Oh, I didn't know that. He may really need attention, then.

Supervisor: Working on that assumption, why don't you try giving it to him?

Student Teacher: But how, when he shows off all the time? Well, not *all* the time. Sometimes he's good. I could praise him when he's good, and I could just sort of talk to him alone sometimes. But I bet that wouldn't stop his showing off. That's a habit. He does it all the time.

Supervisor: It wouldn't make it any worse, and it might help. I know he's a real worry to you.

In the portion of a conference above, the supervisor focused on a concern that was real to the student teacher. He realized that Tommy's misbehavior was threatening to the student teacher and that the action she had taken was that which she considered wise. It helped the student teacher to understand why Tommy acted as he did and to choose different procedures that gave promise of being more effective. The student teacher recorded her commitment concerning changed behavior on her conference plan form as one of the "Next Steps" she should try to take. Though the same suggestion might have been made by the supervising teacher directly

and much more quickly, the student teacher's own recognition of the solution for the problem would seem to be more helpful to her than another's suggestion.

PLANS FOR ACTION

Since a productive conference includes not only consideration of the concerns of both conferees but plans for changed behavior, the structure of each conference should be such that the flow of discussion leads to verbalization of plans for that change. This structure and need should become apparent to the student teacher as the conference progresses.

Plans for action, or commitments, may be stated by the student teacher or suggested by the supervisor at any point in the conference, or the conference may end with the formulation of "Next Steps." The person in the supervisory position should assume the initiative if the student teacher does not. If the suggestion is made by the student teacher, it can be immediately recognized as a commitment. If it comes from the supervisor, it is well to be sure the student teacher understands and accepts the idea. Agreement, restatement, and extension of the suggestion indicates that the student teacher recognizes the suggestion as a commitment. This recognition is illustrated in the following interchange:

Supervisor: Now, the children might be more attentive if they were more involved in what is going on. Watching others at the board doesn't really involve them, does it? You might use some kind of multiple-response technique to keep their attention.

Student Teacher: I never thought of that. I might make some cards for each of them, with "yes" on one side and "no" on the other, I suppose.

Supervisor: That sounds good. Or . . .

Student Teacher: It would be better for each of them to have two cards, I guess. Then they'd have to think. I'll do that.

In conferences which focus on teaching behavior, there is a definite advantage in stating the commitments or plans for action in the language of the system or categories of analysis that are being used. Thus, in a scheme based on principles of learning, commitments would be related to the agreed-upon principles. In the same way, commitments stated within the scheme of analysis which focuses on the thinking processes of learners should be stated in terms of the categories familiar to both participants. It should be remembered, however, that the purpose of using any scheme for analysis is not to teach the system or perfect the identification of categories but to help the emerging teacher become critical and analytical of his own teaching.

There is no suggestion here that conferees need to limit discussion in the conference or to limit the scope of the resulting commitments to one particular focus. Conferences should be concerned with matters considered important to their participants, and commitments should be made in any terms which are useful in guiding the analysis of teaching. The specific terms used are not important, but the analysis, the critical examination of his own work, and the thoughtful consideration of ways of improving it are important to every student of teaching.

In whatever terms the plans are made, they should describe specific behavior. General good intentions are less effective in bringing about change than specific plans. The following are contrasting examples of general and specific commitments by student teachers:

> I'll have to do that. I'll call on those who aren't throwing their hands in the air all the time.
>
> Only five children talked during this period. I'll have to try to distribute my questions better.

* * *

> Discovery is very important. I want to use discovery better in another lesson.
>
> I tried to get them to discover the rule, and they just didn't. Next time I'm going to ask just one question at a time and give them time to think.

The supervising teacher or the college supervisor can readily see which commitment of each pair is more likely to be implemented by the student teacher.

As the supervisor and the student study the problem at hand, they will want to identify certain gaps between intended and actual behavior. They will plan ways of making improvements. Each conference should end with definite plans for action or agreements that specific types of behavior will be employed. The supervisor will need to check perceptions with the student teacher to be sure each understands the commitments made and the way the commitments are recorded for future reference.

Implementing Commitments

Analysis, discussion, and commitments to future action are but the beginning of the process of studying teaching. Unless commitments are implemented, the process of study has been of little value. Records of subsequent examples of teaching are again analyzed for evidence of implementation of commitments previously made. The supervisor may well plan

with the student teacher ways of seeking such evidence. The student teacher should grow in skill in recognizing the degree to which commitments result in action. Evidence concerning implementation leads to new planning and new commitments which provide further material for study. Evidence of increasing success in carrying through on commitments demonstrates the professional growth of the student teacher.

For a beginner in the area of supervision, it should be emphasized that the process of studying teaching can be employed using any agreed-upon method of analysis. A supervisor who helps a student teacher to study his teachings in terms of clearly defined categories of analysis and to carry out the commitments to improved practice that are made will find his conferences both valuable and effective. It is almost certain that he will learn much about himself as well as about teaching. And his own skill as a teacher and a supervisor will increase as well.

Chapter IV

REWARDS OF PRODUCTIVE CONFERENCES

Every good teacher knows the feeling of the lesson that has gone well. The pleasure and satisfaction of the learners and the glow of achievement felt by the teacher not only pay for the time spent in preparation and effort expended in teaching but return a bonus of satisfaction. An effective conference, skillfully conducted, leaves the same glow of pleasure. When the student teacher has been helped to analyze his own problems and to devise a possible solution and returns to his task with new insight and with confidence in his own potential, the supervisor who has helped him achieve this understanding feels the same warm satisfaction of a job well done.

First conferences may not leave this feeling. Rather, the supervisor may be left feeling that he failed to establish and maintain the kind of atmosphere in which real understanding could develop and real learning take place. It may help to remember that early lessons with groups of learners were not always successful and to recall the time spent in developing the skills of group teaching.

A teacher who is skillful in working with groups can be equally skillful in helping another adult learn the same skills. His teaching method will usually be the individual conference. Time, purposeful practice, and unsparing analysis of his own procedures will enable him to develop skill. In time, use of the skill becomes habitual and the satisfaction of doing a good job begins to outweigh the effort expended.

There are other satisfactions for the supervisor. He will find that he, as well as the student teacher, grows in knowledge and in skill through

the process of analysis. It is impossible to examine the teaching behavior of another thoughtfully and analytically without beginning to examine and analyze one's own. Such analysis may create satisfaction or lead to commitments for change. In either case, examined teaching is better teaching.

While careful planning for instruction is a long-practiced skill to a good teacher, conference planning and discussion with a student teacher of various ways in which he may implement a commitment may well serve as a refresher course in planning. Practice in thoughtful and responsive listening to a student teacher may help the teacher really to listen to learners in his classroom. Helping a student teacher make definite plans for change may help the teacher to set more definite objectives for his own teaching and remind him of the need for learners to set objectives for their learning.

Finally, selection or planning of a method of analyzing teaching will help the supervising teacher develop deeper insight into his own concepts of teaching as well as into the nature of the teaching process as examined by others. Such a fresh look at a process which has become smoothly familiar generates new interest, new excitement, in a task that may have lost some of its challenge through familiarity.

The student teacher also benefits in many ways from conferences that are carried out with skill. Of course, the whole process is designed to assist in his professional growth. However, much of his learning comes about by example. The teaching example set by the supervisor who studies his student's teaching thoughtfully, helps him plan intelligently, and gives attention to maintaining good human relations throughout the process may well be most valuable. The student's subsequent teaching may well reflect the teacher's patience, objectivity, concern for excellence and for the learner, as much as it reflects the specific learnings upon which conferences focus.

Indirectly, but definitely, learners benefit from increasing conference skill on the part of their teachers. As the teaching skill and the sensitivity of teachers and student teachers increases, the learning opportunities they offer learners become more appropriate, more definitely focused, and more carefully evaluated. Awkward teaching behavior on the part of the student teacher becomes more effective; habitual teaching behavior on the part of the supervisor begins to give way to examined behavior. Learners' chances for learning are improved.

There are few tasks in teaching more challenging or more rewarding than helping a young teacher gain in confidence and in skill. The most readily available way of bringing this about is the supervisory conference. The conference requires a particularly skillful kind of individualized teaching which must be learned and practiced. It is a skill that can be developed by any supervisor who is willing to expend the time and effort required. The satisfactions that follow mastery of this skill make the time and effort of learning it well worthwhile.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

AMIDON, EDMUND, and HOUGH, JOHN B. *Interaction Analysis: Theory Research and Application.* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1967.

ASCHNER, MARY J. MCGUE. "Asking Questions To Trigger Thinking." *NEA Journal* 50:44-46; September 1961.

BELLACK, ARNO A., editor. *Theory and Research in Teaching.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963.

BELLACK, ARNO A., and others. *The Language of the Classroom.* Parts 1 and 2. U.S. Office of Education Cooperative Research Projects No. 1497 and No. 2023. New York: Institute of Psychological Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963 and 1965.

BERMAN, LOUISE M., editor. *The Nature of Teaching.* Milwaukee: School of Education, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, 1963.

BIDDLE, BRUCE J., and ELLENA, WILLIAM J., editors. *Contemporary Research on Teaching Effectiveness.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1964.

COMBS, ARTHUR W. "The Personal Approach to Good Teaching." *Educational Leadership* 21:369-79; March 1964.

COMBS, ARTHUR W., and MITZEL, HAROLD E. "Can We Measure Good Teaching Objectively?" *NEA Journal* 53:34-36, 73; January 1964.

CORRIGAN, DEAN, editor. *The Study of Teaching.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Student Teaching, 1967.

FLANDERS, NED A. "Analyzing Teacher Behavior." *Educational Leadership* 19: 173-75, 178-80, 200; December 1961.

GAGE, N. L., editor. *Handbook of Research on Teaching.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1963.

GALLOWAY, CHARLES M. "Teacher Nonverbal Communication." *Educational Leadership* 24:55-63; October 1966.

GALLAGHER, JAMES J., and ASCHNER, MARY JANE. "A Preliminary Report on Analyses of Classroom Interaction." *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly* 9:183-94; July 1963.

HUEBNER, DWAYNE, "Curricular Language and Classroom Meanings." *Languages and Meaning.* (JAMES B. MACDONALD and ROBERT R. LEEPER, editors.) Washington, D.C., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1966. pp. 8-26.

HUGHES, MARIE M. "What is Teaching? One Viewpoint." *Educational Leadership* 19:251-59; January 1962.

HUGHES, MARIE M. and associates. *Assessment of the Quality of Teaching in Elementary Schools.* U.S. Office of Education Cooperative Research Project No. 353. Salt Lake City: University of Utah, 1959.

HYMAN, RONALD T., editor. *Teaching: Vantage Points for Study.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1968.

JOYCE, BRUCE R., and HAROOTUNIAN, BERJ. *The Structure of Teaching.* Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1967.

KLOHR, PAUL R. "Studies of the Teaching Act: What Progress?" *Educational Leadership* 20:93-96; November 1962.

LEWIS, W. W. "Selected Concepts of Communication as a Basis for Studying Mental Health in the Classroom." *Journal of Communication* 11:157-62; September 1961.

LEWIS, W. W.; NEWALL, J. M.; and WITHALL, JOHN. "An Analysis of Classroom Patterns of Communication." *Psycological Report* 9:211-19; 1961.

MACDONALD, JAMES B. "Studies of Instruction." *Educational Leadership.* 21: 41-49; October 1963.

MEDLEY, DONALD M. "Experiences with the OScAR Technique." *Journal of Teacher Education* 14:267-73; September 1963.

RYANS, DAVID G. "Teacher Behavior Theory and Research: Implications for Teacher Education." *Journal of Teacher Education* 14:274-93; September 1963.

..... *Characteristics of Teachers*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1960.

SANDERS, NORRIS M. *Classroom Questions: What Kinds?* New York: Harper and Row, 1966.

SILBERMAN, HARRY F., editor, "A Symposium on Current Research in Classroom Behavior of Teachers and Its Implications for Teacher Education." *Journal of Teacher Education* 14:235-325; September 1963.

SMITH, B. OTHANIEL, and ENNIS, ROBERT H., editors, *Language and Concepts in Education*. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1961.

SUCHMAN, J. RICHARD, "Inquiry Training in the Elementary School." *Science Teacher* 27:42-47; November 1960.

TABA, HILDA, and ELZEY, FREEMAN F. "Teaching Strategies and Thought Processes." *Teachers College Record* 65:524-34; March 1964.

TYLER, LOUISE L. "The Concept of an Ideal Teacher-Student Relationship." *Journal of Educational Research* 58:112-17; November 1964.

WAIMON, MORTON D. "Observing the Classroom Action System." *Journal of Teacher Education* 12:466-70; December 1961.

WITHALL, JOHN, chairman. "A Symposium on Conceptual Frameworks for Analysis of Classroom Interaction." *Journal of Experimental Education* 30:307-26; June 1962.